



Carbon-doped mesoporous TiO₂-immobilized Ni nanoparticles: Oxygen defect engineering enhances hydrogen production

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ABSTRACT

Constructing efficient, durable, and economical catalysts to promote hydrogen production from hydrous hydrazine (N₂H₄·H₂O) is crucial, but still a great challenge. Herein, noble-metal-free Cr(OH)₃-modified Ni nanoparticles (NPs) (2.7 nm) supported on defect-rich carbon-doped mesoporous TiO₂ nanosheets (C-TiO₂) were prepared for the first time via a simple and green wet-chemistry approach, in which the amount of oxygen defect in C-TiO₂ can be easily regulated by adjusting the amount of carbon doping. Significantly, the defect rich Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ catalyst presented 100% H₂ selectivity, ultrahigh catalytic activity, and remarkable durability for N₂H₄·H₂O dehydrogenation, with a turnover frequency (TOF) value of 266 h⁻¹ at 323 K, more than 6-fold improvement than that of the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ (41 h⁻¹), which is among the highest values reported so far for noble-metal-free catalysts. The superior catalytic efficiency and durability are mainly owing to the small-sized and electron-rich of Ni NPs induced by the oxygen defects in C-TiO₂, where the more oxygen defects, the better the catalytic activity. Furthermore, the catalyst also showed outstanding catalytic efficiency (TOF = 577 h⁻¹) and robust durability for complete dehydrogenation of hydrazine borane (N₂H₄BH₃) at 323 K. This work provides inspiration for the construction of defect engineering and new insights for the development of low-cost and efficient heterogeneous hydrogen production catalysts.

1. Introduction

Hydrogen is a promising renewable energy due to its extensive sources, high energy density (120 kJ/g), and environmental friendliness [1–3]. However, a safe and efficient hydrogen storage system remains one of the main technical obstacles to achieving hydrogen energy economy. In recent years, chemical storage of hydrogen has been supposed an effective method [4–10]. Among various chemical storage materials, hydrous hydrazine (N₂H₄·H₂O) in liquid hydrogen sources has received widespread attention due to its high hydrogen content (8.0 wt%), generation of CO-free hydrogen, convenience in storage and transport [11–15]. N₂H₄ is able to completely decompose into H₂ and by-product N₂ under appropriate catalysts and reaction conditions (Eq. (1)), while catalytic reduction of N₂ can regenerate N₂H₄ [16–20]. However, the decomposition of N₂H₄ can also proceed via the incomplete decomposition route (Eq. (2)) [21–23]. Therefore, developing efficient and stable catalytic materials that can complete the dehydrogenation of N₂H₄ is of great significance.



Nickel (Ni), as a non-precious metal with abundant reserves and low cost, has widely studied due to its excellent performance in various catalytic reactions as well as N₂H₄·H₂O dehydrogenation [24–26]. Therefore, a variety of Ni-based catalysts for N₂H₄·H₂O dehydrogenation have been reported so far [27–29]. Among them, Ni-based catalysts containing Pt, Rh, or other noble metals have high catalytic activity, but their application is limited due to the scarcity and high price of precious metals [30–35]. To reduce the cost of the catalysts, the development of noble-metal-free Ni catalysts is attractive [36–38]. However, there is a large gap in catalytic efficiency between non-noble metal catalysts and noble metal catalysts [39–41]. Therefore, developing a highly active noble-metal-free Ni catalyst is urgent, but still faces enormous challenges. Recent studies have shown that the catalytic activity of metal NP catalysts can be improved by doping with metal oxides or hydroxides (e.

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g. $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ [22,24,31]. These dopants can not only act as atomic barriers to avoid active metal NP aggregating, but also act as electron donors to increase electron density of active metal surface [42]. Therefore, $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ is expected to be as a favorable promoter of Ni catalysts to boost hydrogen production. Ultrafine active metal NPs generally showed higher catalytic efficiency due to their smaller size and thus exposure more active sites [43]. However, due to the high surface energy of metal NPs, they tend to aggregate into larger NPs, resulting in decreased activity and poor durability during the reaction. Therefore, it is highly desirable to prepare small NPs and immobilize them from aggregating by a versatile substrate.

Titanium dioxide (TiO_2) is one of the most popular materials in recent years because of its rich reserves, high chemical stability, and structural diversity [44–48]. In particular, mesoporous TiO_2 with high specific surface area and large pore size can effectively immobilize metal NPs, the number of active sites is increased and the catalytic activity is improved [49–51]. Additionally, increasing the electron density of metal active sites can also improve the catalytic activity, because it is conducive to activate the N–H bonds in N_2H_4 . However, the low electron transfer efficiency at the interface of mesoporous TiO_2 results in insufficient electron supply around the active sites [52]. The introduction of defects in support have recently demonstrated to be an effective strategy to modulate the surface charge distribution of active sites. There are various methods for design defects, among them doping heteroatom (e. g. C, N, P) into TiO_2 is a popular method for constructing defects, because heteroatoms can be easily incorporated into the TiO_2 lattice, thereby effectively introducing oxygen vacancies (OVs) [53,54]. The OVs introduced in TiO_2 can induce interfacial electron transfer, increase the electron density of active metals, and strengthen the interaction between metal and support [55], thus facilitating the activation of N–H bonds in N_2H_4 . Additionally, the doping of heteroatom in TiO_2 can also increase the specific surface area and provide a suitable coordination environment [56–58]. Therefore, the defect engineering of C-doped mesoporous TiO_2 may be an effective way to improve the performance of catalyst, but there are currently no reports on hydrogen production from nitrogen hydrides. At present, the incorporation of C into TiO_2 is usually achieved by adding carbon sources such as urea, melamine, and glucose during high-temperature calcination [59–61]. However, this method can easily lead to uneven doping and unstable defect structures, resulting in difficulty in anchoring metal NPs and low electron transfer efficiency. Therefore, developing an effective and simple strategy to engineer the defects of mesoporous TiO_2 for preparing small non-noble metal NPs to improve catalytic dehydrogenation activity remains challenging.

In this work, we report for the first time the immobilization of $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ -modified Ni NPs on defect-rich C-doped mesoporous TiO_2 via a simple and green wet-chemistry approach, where C- TiO_2 was synthesized using solvent-induced hydrothermal method combined with high temperature calcination. The amount of oxygen defects in C- TiO_2 can be regulated by simply adjusting the carbon doping amount, which is tuned by changing the amount of glycerol in the hydrothermal process. Glycerol can induce the ordered assembly of TiO_2 during the hydrothermal process, and part of C can be incorporated into the TiO_2 lattice after its decomposition during high-temperature calcination. Surprisingly, the obtained defect-rich Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 catalyst shows high catalytic performance and remarkable durability for hydrogen production from $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$. The TOF value of Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 reached as high as 266 h^{-1} at 323 K, and the catalyst performance did not decrease significantly even after 20 cycles, which is one of the best reports on noble-metal-free catalysts to date. In addition, Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 catalyst also showed excellent catalytic efficiency (577 h^{-1}) and robust durability for the dehydrogenation of $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\text{BH}_3$.

2. Experimental

2.1. Synthetic procedure

C-doped TiO_2 nanosheets with different C doping amounts were synthesized by a solvent-induced hydrothermal method combined with high temperature calcination, where the C doping amount of C- TiO_2 was controlled by changing the amount of glycerol ($x = 10\text{--}50\text{ mL}$) in the hydrothermal process (details are described in the [Supporting Information](#)). Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ supported on C- TiO_2 was synthesized by a simple wet chemical method. Typically, C- TiO_2 (30 mg) is dispersed in 5 mL of deionized water, and then $\text{NiCl}_2\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.2 mmol, 48.4 mg) and $\text{Cr}(\text{NO}_3)_3\cdot 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (0.015 mmol, 6.0 mg) are added to the C- TiO_2 suspension and ultrasonic treatment is conducted at room temperature for 30 min. Then, quickly add 30 mg of NaBH_4 and stir vigorously. Finally, the black solid (Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2) was obtained until bubble formation stopped. As a comparison, Ni/C- TiO_2 , Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ NPs, and Ni NPs samples were synthesized using a similar way, with the difference being that C- TiO_2 and/or $\text{Cr}(\text{NO}_3)_3$ were not added. The Ni/ TiO_2 and Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ / TiO_2 were prepared using the same method as that of Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 except that TiO_2 nanosheets were used instead of C- TiO_2 nanosheets.

2.2. Catalytic activity measurement

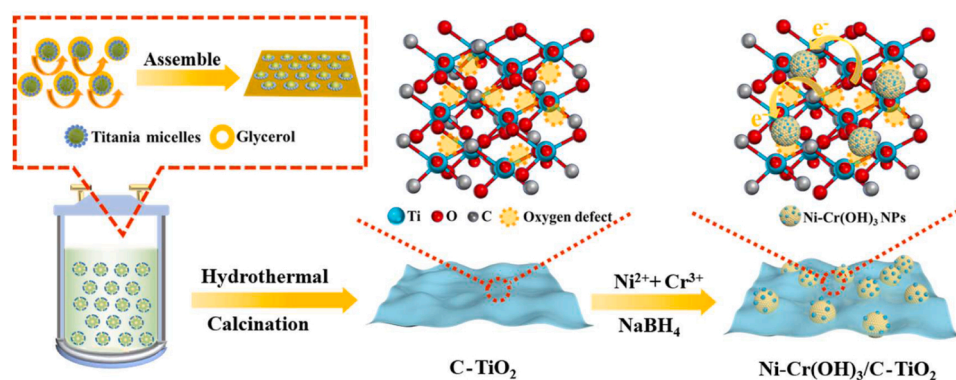
The reaction device for measuring $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ gas production is the same as described in our previous work [62]. Usually, a catalyst suspension solution (10 mL) in the two-neck round-bottomed flask (50 mL). One of the two necks is used to connect the gas burette to the measure the volume of released gas. The other neck is used to inject 100 μL of $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ into the catalyst suspension under stirring, and the decomposition reaction begins. The volume of gas released is measured by recording the displacement of water in the gas burette. The content of Ni was fixed to be $n\text{Ni}/n\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ of 0.1 for all the catalysts. Immerse the flask in a constant temperature water bath.

3. Results and discussion

3.1. Catalysts characterization

As shown in [Scheme 1](#), $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ -modified Ni NPs supported on defect-rich C-doped mesoporous TiO_2 nanosheets (C- TiO_2) was synthesized by a simple and facile approach. First, C- TiO_2 was synthesized by solvent induced hydrothermal synthesis of precursor followed by calcination in N_2 atmosphere at 350°C . The oxygen defect amount of C- TiO_2 can be controlled by adjusting the C doping amount, which is tuned by changing the amount of glycerol in the hydrothermal process. Then, the synthesized C- TiO_2 was dispersed in water by sonication. Subsequently, $\text{NiCl}_2\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{Cr}(\text{NO}_3)_3\cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$ were added to the well-dispersed C- TiO_2 suspension and stirred for 30 min. Then, quickly add 30 mg of NaBH_4 and stir vigorously. Ni^{2+} is reduced to Ni^0 by NaBH_4 , while Cr^{3+} cannot be reduced to Cr^0 because of the lower reduction potentials of $\text{Cr}(\text{III})/\text{Cr}(\text{I})$ ($E_{\text{Cr}(\text{III})/\text{Cr}(\text{I})}^0 = -0.74\text{ eV}$ vs SHE). The alkali solution generated in situ after hydrolysis of NaBH_4 converts it to $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$. The obtained catalyst Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 was used for the following characterization and catalytic performance test. The Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 synthesized with 40 mL glycerol exhibited the highest catalytic efficiency among all synthesized catalysts (vide infra). Therefore, if the dosage of glycerol used in the catalyst is not specified in the article, it refers to the use of 40 mL of glycerol during the synthesis of precursors.

The structure and morphology of the synthesized catalyst were characterized by scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM). As shown in [Figs. 1a](#) and [S1](#), the mesoporous C- TiO_2 is a flower-like structure formed by stacking two-dimensional nanosheets. After loading Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ NPs on mesoporous C- TiO_2 nanosheets, the shape of the Ni- $\text{Cr}(\text{OH})_3$ /C- TiO_2 still maintains



Scheme 1. Schematic illustration of the preparation of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂.

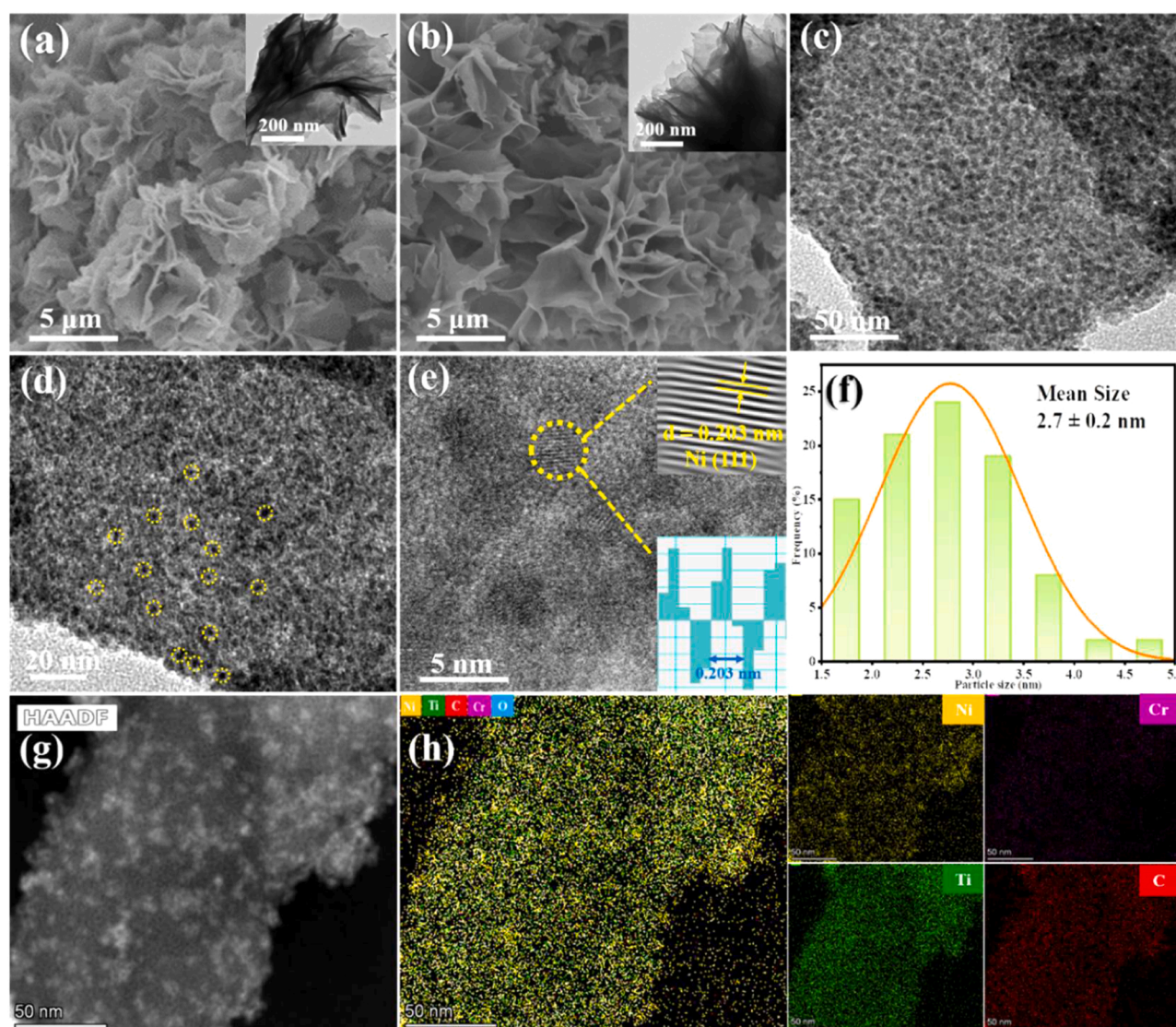


Fig. 1. SEM images of (a) C-TiO₂ and (b) Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ (inset: the corresponding TEM images); (c,d) TEM images, (e) HRTEM image (inset: the corresponding inverse FFT patterns), (f) particle size distribution, and (g) HAADF-STEM image of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂; (h) The corresponding EDS mapping images of Ni, Cr, Ti, and C.

the original flower-like structure (Fig. 1b). Additionally, Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs with an average size of 2.7 nm is uniformly dispersed on the nanosheets of C-TiO₂ (Fig. 1c-e). High-resolution TEM image in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ shows lattice fringes of 0.203 nm, corresponding to the face-centered

cubic Ni (111) plane (inset of Fig. 1e). The ICP-OES analysis results of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ showed that the actual loadings of Ni and Cr are 23.5 and 1.5 wt%, respectively, close to the theoretical values (Table S1). The TG analysis reveals that the C content in C-TiO₂ is about

28.9 wt% (Fig. S2). In addition, the uniform dispersion of Ni, Cr, Ti, and C in the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ was further confirmed by the corresponding EDS elemental mappings (Fig. 1g and h). In contrast, compared with Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂, Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs loaded on TiO₂ nanosheets without C doping (Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂) show larger particle size of 5.6 nm (Fig. S3), which reflected the key role of C doped TiO₂ in regulating the particle size and dispersion of metal NPs. Besides the support, adding transition metal to modify Ni NPs can also regulate its particle size. As shown in Fig. S4, the size of Ni NPs in Ni/C-TiO₂ prepared without Cr (3.3 nm) is relatively larger than that of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ prepared with Cr (2.7 nm), indicating Cr(OH)₃ can serve as an atomic barrier to inhibit the growth of Ni NPs. Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs without C-TiO₂ are severely agglomerated to a large size (12.3 nm). Therefore, the introduction of C-TiO₂ and Cr(OH)₃ contributes to form highly dispersed and small-sized Ni NPs.

The crystal structures of the catalysts were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD). In Fig. 2a, all diffraction peaks of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ can be regarded as a tetragonal phase, corresponding to anatase TiO₂ (JCPDS: 21-1272) [63]. However, Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ shows a wide low crystal diffraction peak, which may be due to the limitation of the uniform dispersion of TiO₂ in the carbon agent, resulting in a small crystal size. It is worth noting that the characteristic diffraction peaks related to Ni and/or Cr(OH)₃ species are not shown in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ and Ni/C-TiO₂ (Fig. S5), which is possibly attributed to their high dispersion and small size. While for Ni and Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs without support, there is a central peak located at 44.5°, which belongs to the (111) plane of face-centered cubic (fcc) Ni (JCPDS: 04-0850), indicating that Ni and

Ni-Cr(OH)₃ have crystalline structures.

Fig. S6 shows the N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms of Ni-Cr(OH)₃ loaded on C-TiO₂ and TiO₂ respectively. It can be clearly observed that the two catalysts show the characteristics of type IV isotherm with H₂ hysteresis ring, which indicates that they have mesoporous structure. Compared with Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂, the specific surface area and pore volume of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ are larger and the pore size is smaller, indicating that the incorporation of C into TiO₂ increases the specific surface area to a certain extent, while the reduction of pore size indicates that the incorporation of C is successful. The decrease of specific surface area of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ relative to C-TiO₂ may be due to the fact that the loading of Ni-Cr(OH)₃ occupies a certain area (Table S2), which again proves that the metal NPs are well loaded.

To prove the introduction of defects in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂, Raman spectroscopy was performed. The Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ exhibits typical D-band (1348 cm⁻¹) and G-band (1582 cm⁻¹) (Fig. 2b), respectively, which attributes to the carbon defects and ordered graphitic structure. However, Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ without C doping shows no such peaks. Furthermore, after C incorporation into TiO₂, the Raman signal of TiO₂ is attenuated and broadened, confirming the weakening of the symmetric stretching vibration of the Ti-O-Ti bond. Additionally, the E_g band of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ (151 cm⁻¹) is blue shifted compared to that of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ (143 cm⁻¹), indicating that a Ti³⁺/OVs-related disordered structure is formed during self-doping process [64]. The above results reveal that the original symmetry TiO₂ lattice is broken to form non-stoichiometric TiO_{2-x}, and the blue shift of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ also verifies the strong interaction between C and TiO₂.

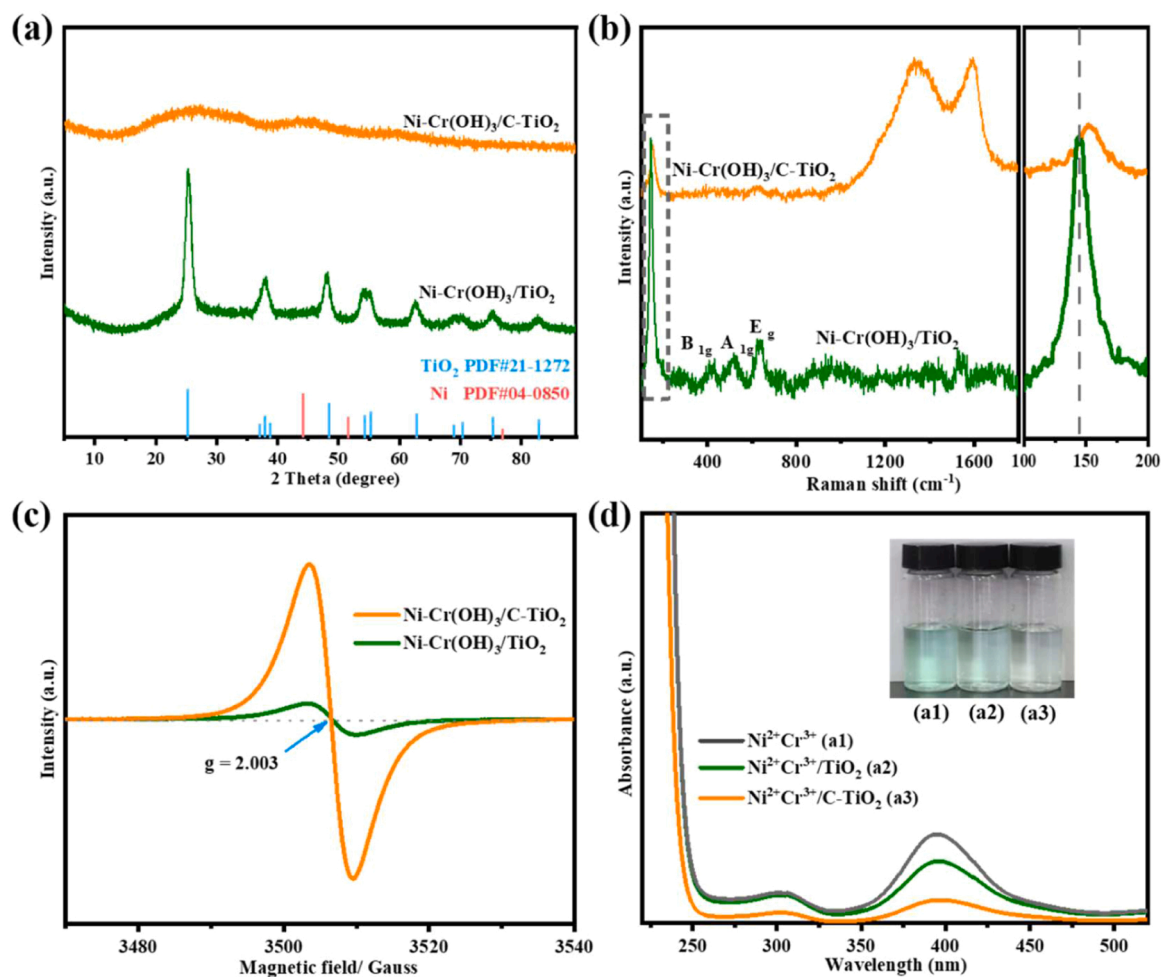


Fig. 2. (a) XRD patterns, (b) Raman spectra, and (c) EPR spectra of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ and Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂; (d) UV-Vis spectra of (a1) Ni²⁺/Cr³⁺, (a2) Ni²⁺/Cr³⁺/TiO₂, and (a3) Ni²⁺/Cr³⁺/C-TiO₂ aqueous solution after mixing and standing for 12 h, the inset is corresponding photos.

To further demonstrate the existence of oxygen defects in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂, electron paramagnetic resonance (EPR) was performed. As shown in Fig. 2c, it can be seen that C-doped TiO₂ has a peak at *g* value of 2.003, which is a characteristic peak of oxygen defect, and its signal intensity can be found to be significantly stronger than TiO₂. Because when C is doped into TiO₂, its internal structure will be disordered, resulting in a large number of oxygen defects [65]. The C-TiO₂ with abundant oxygen defects is not only conducive to the adsorption of metal ions to obtain highly dispersed small-sized metal NPs, but also regulate the electronic structure of the active metal to make its surface electron-rich state. The chemical structure of the catalysts was further analyzed by Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy (FTIR). As shown in Fig. S7, the peaks at 3422 and 1631 cm⁻¹ are corresponded to the -OH vibration, and the peak at 400–700 cm⁻¹ is assigned to the Ti-O-Ti bridge stretching modes. In addition, the Ti-O-Ti peak of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is broader than that of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂, because the doping of C leads to the disorder of self-doping, thus weakening the tensile strength of Ti-O-Ti [66].

In order to explore the effect of defects in the C-TiO₂ on the adsorption capacity of metal ions, we took photos to observe the color changes of the supernatant after the adsorption of metal ions on different supports. As shown in Fig. 2d (inset), the supernatant of the mixed solution of Ni²⁺, Cr³⁺, and TiO₂ after standing for 12 h is light green, which is close to the color of Ni²⁺ and Cr³⁺ aqueous solution; while the supernatant of the mixed solution of Ni²⁺, Cr³⁺, and C-TiO₂ after standing for 12 h is colorless and transparent. These results indicate that C-TiO₂ with abundant oxygen defects has much stronger adsorption

capacity for Ni²⁺ and Cr³⁺ than TiO₂. Moreover, UV-Vis absorption spectroscopy was further performed to analyze the supernatant of the above three samples. As shown in Fig. 2d, in the absence of support materials, the mixed solution of Ni²⁺ and Cr³⁺ appear absorption peak at around 390 nm. The intensity absorption peak of the supernatant of Ni²⁺ and Cr³⁺ mixed with C-TiO₂ after standing is very weak compared to that of the supernatant of Ni²⁺ and Cr³⁺ mixed with TiO₂, which confirms that C-TiO₂ has a stronger ability to adsorb metal ions and is consistent with the corresponding color changes. The enhanced adsorption capacity of C-TiO₂ is due to the increase in the number of defects on the surface of TiO₂, with a large number of unsaturated sites making it easier to absorb metal ions, thus facilitating the preparation of highly dispersed and small-sized metal NPs, as confirmed by TEM analysis.

The compositions and chemical states of the catalysts were studied using X-ray photoelectron spectroscopy (XPS). The full spectrum of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ proves the presence of Ni, Cr, Ti, O, and C elements (Fig. S8). As shown in Fig. 3a, the high-resolution Ti 2p XPS spectrum of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ is deconvoluted into two Ti⁴⁺ peaks (458.9 and 464.5 eV). The high-resolution Ti 2p XPS spectrum of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ are deconvoluted into four peaks, two peaks of 459.4 and 465.3 eV are attributed to Ti⁴⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Ti⁴⁺ 2p_{1/2}, and the other two peaks of 457.5 and 463.7 eV are assigned to Ti³⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Ti³⁺ 2p_{1/2}, confirmed that Ti³⁺ species were formed after incorporation of C. Meanwhile, compared with Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂, the binding energies of Ti⁴⁺ 2p_{3/2} and Ti⁴⁺ 2p_{1/2} of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ display a positive shifted, which may be attributed to the strong electronic effect and/or interactions between

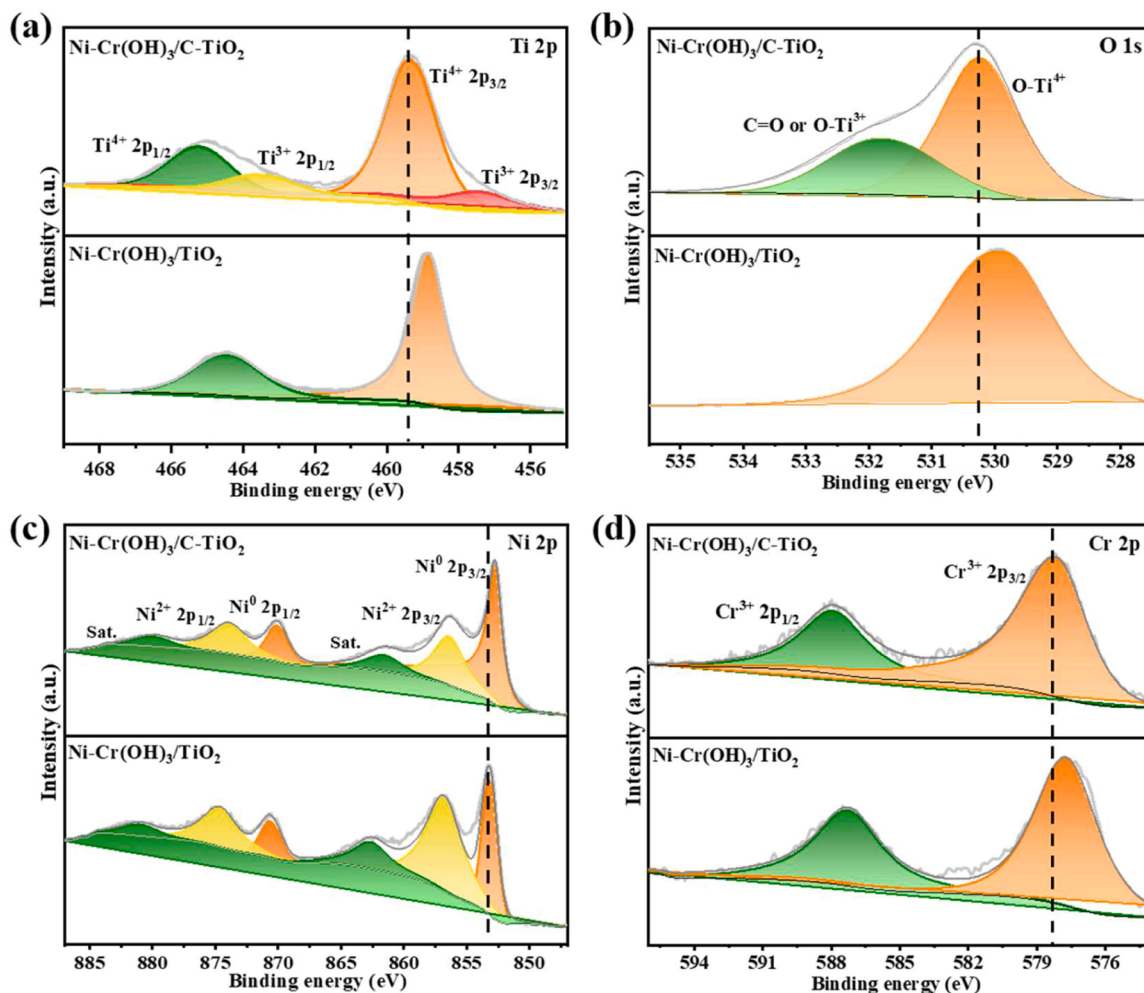


Fig. 3. XPS spectra of (a) Ti 2p, (b) O 1s, (c) Ni 2p, and (d) Cr 2p of the synthesized catalysts.

TiO₂ and C in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂. The O1s XPS spectrum of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ reveals the presence of O-Ti⁴⁺ groups (530.3 eV), O-Ti³⁺ groups (531.8 eV), or C=O. Additionally, the binding energy of O-Ti⁴⁺ groups in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is positively shifted relative to Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂, further indicating the existence of oxygen defects on Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂. The Ni 2p_{3/2} spectrum of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ exhibits a peak attributed to metal Ni (0) at approximately 852.8 eV (Fig. 3c), and the peak of Ni 2p_{3/2} at 856.5 eV belongs to Ni²⁺, which may be due to partial oxidation of the catalyst during the sample preparation process [67]. Its satellite peak is approximately at 861.7 eV of Ni 2p_{3/2} peak. Additionally, the Ni 2p_{3/2} peak of the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is shifted to lower binding energy in comparison to those of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ (853.3 eV). Compared with Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs (Fig. S9, 853.7 eV) and Ni/C-TiO₂ (Fig. S9, 853.1 eV), the binding energy of metal Ni in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is also shifted to a lower value. The above result indicates that some electrons transferred from C-TiO₂ and Cr(OH)₃ to Ni. For the Cr 2p of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ (Fig. 3d), the binding energy difference between Cr³⁺ peaks (2p_{1/2} and 2p_{3/2}) is 9.8 eV, which indicates that Cr elements exits as Cr(OH)₃ [68]. The exist of Cr(OH)₃ can increase the basic sites in the catalyst and adjust the microscopic pH of the Ni surface. Moreover, compared with Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ (577.8 eV), the binding energy of Cr³⁺ 2p_{3/2} in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is shifted to a higher value (578.3 eV), suggesting the transfer of some electrons from Cr(OH)₃ to C-TiO₂. The above XPS analysis results indicated that the incorporation of C into support TiO₂ and the addition of Cr into metal Ni can increase

the electron density of the active metal Ni surface, which is beneficial for promoting the breaking of the N-H bond, thus improving catalytic efficiency [69].

3.2. Catalytic activity

The catalytic activities of the as-prepared catalysts toward the dehydrogenation of N₂H₄·H₂O were tested in a typical water-filled graduated burette system at 323 K. As shown in Fig. 4a, the Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs supported on mesoporous TiO₂ nanosheets (Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂) displays a low catalytic activity for N₂H₄·H₂O dehydrogenation, with which 3.0 equivalent of (N₂ + H₂) per N₂H₄ (α = 100%) were generated within 29.4 min at 323 K. In contrast, the catalytic activity of Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs supported on C-doped mesoporous TiO₂ nanosheets (Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂) is significantly enhanced, with the complete dehydrogenation of N₂H₄·H₂O takes only 4.5 min at 323 K. The reaction completeness was characterized by UV-Vis spectroscopy. As displayed in Fig. S10, the liquid after complete reaction showed no adsorption peak at 458 nm by UV-Vis detection, indicating 100% conversion of N₂H₄. The generated gas from N₂H₄ decomposition over Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is identified as a mixture of only H₂ and N₂ by gas chromatography (GC) (Fig. S11), indicating 100% H₂ selectivity. The Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ catalyst after the dehydrogenation reaction was analyzed by N₂ adsorption-desorption isotherms (Fig. S12) and FTIR spectroscopy (Fig. S13), and the results show that the specific surface area, pore

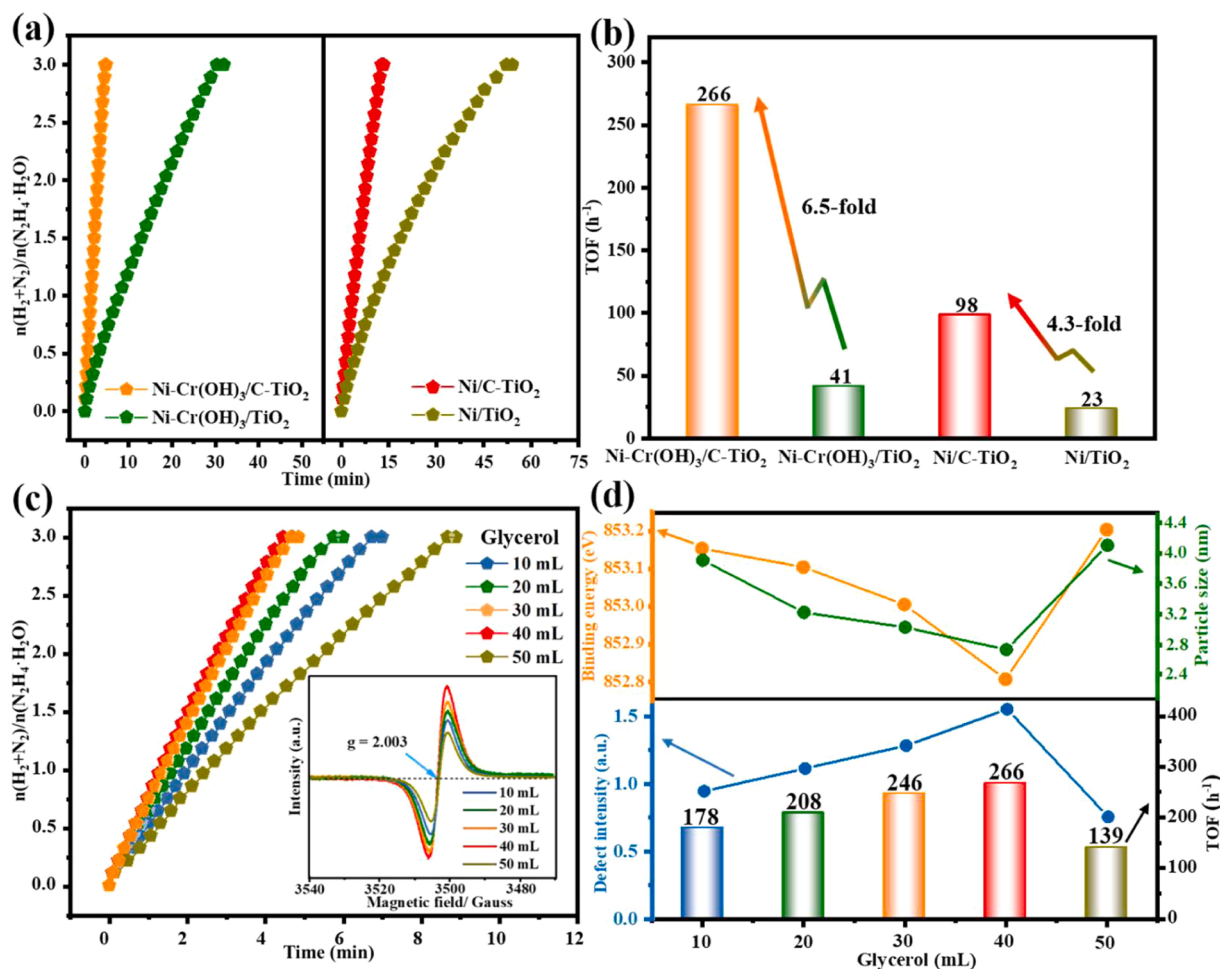


Fig. 4. Hydrogen evolution time course plots of N₂H₄·H₂O (0.2 M, 5 mL) catalyzed by (a) Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂, Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂, Ni/C-TiO₂, and Ni/TiO₂, (b) the corresponding TOF values, and (c) Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂-x prepared with different amounts of glycerol (x = 10–50 mL) with NaOH (3.0 M) at 323 K ($n_{\text{Ni}}/n_{\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}} = 0.1$). Inset of (c) is the corresponding EPR spectra. (d) The correlation between the amount of oxygen vacancy, the particle size of Ni NPs, the binding energy of Ni, and the corresponding TOF value of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ prepared with different amounts of glycerol.

volume, and pore size, and chemical structure of catalyst did not change significantly, indicating its structural stability. The TOF value of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is determined to be 266 h⁻¹, which is 6.5 times higher than Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ (41 h⁻¹) and one of the highest values reported so far for noble-metal-free catalysts (Table S3). The obvious difference in activity reflects the significant impact of introducing C into TiO₂ to produce oxygen defects on catalytic activity. The superior catalytic efficiency is mainly because of the small-sized and electron-rich of Ni NPs induced by the oxygen defects of C-TiO₂.

Compared with Ni/TiO₂, there is also a similar improvement in catalytic performance in Ni/C-TiO₂ (Fig. 4a and b). The TOF value of Ni/C-TiO₂ (98 h⁻¹) is 4.3 times that of Ni/TiO₂ (23 h⁻¹) at 323 K, confirming that introducing oxygen defects into TiO₂ is a universal and effective method to improve the catalytic performance. Notably, C-TiO₂ is inactive in N₂H₄-H₂O dehydrogenation (Fig. S14). The activity activities of commercial anatase TiO₂-supported Ni-Cr(OH)₃ (44.3 h⁻¹, α = 100%), support-free Ni-Cr(OH)₃ (50 h⁻¹, α = 81.3%), and Ni NPs (6 h⁻¹, α = 36.6%) are far lower than that of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ catalyst (Fig. S15). Additionally, compared to Ni/C-TiO₂, the obtained Ni-MoO_x/C-TiO₂ and Ni-WO_x/C-TiO₂ show higher catalytic activity, but not as good as Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ (Fig. S16). In addition, the effect of different amounts of doping Cr(OH)₃ and support C-TiO₂ on the catalyst performance was also explored. The optimal amount of $n\text{Cr}/n(\text{Cr} + \text{Ni})$ (Fig. S17) and C-TiO₂ (Fig. S18) are 7.5% and 30 mg, respectively. Furthermore, the optimal concentration of NaOH is 3.0 M (Fig. S19), but only NaOH solution does not catalyze the dehydrogenation of N₂H₄, indicating that NaOH is used as a promoter rather than a catalyst (Fig. S20). The promotion mechanism of NaOH may be due to the fact that the presence of NaOH can effectively reduce the undesired N₂H₅⁺ (N₂H₅⁺ + OH⁻ → N₂H₄ + H₂O) and accelerate the rate determination step to proceed (N₂H₄ → N₂H₃ + H*), thereby promoting reaction kinetics. In addition, the presence of NaOH can also suppress the release of by-product NH₃.

In order to further investigate the effect of oxygen defect amount of C-TiO₂ on the catalyst performance, Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs supported on C-TiO₂-x with different C doping amounts were synthesized. The C doping amount was controlled by changing the amount of glycerol (x = 10–50 mL) in the hydrothermal process. As shown in Fig. 4c, when the amount of glycerol increased from 10 to 40 mL, the catalytic activity of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ gradually enhanced, and the TOF values increased from 178 h⁻¹ to 266 h⁻¹ (Fig. 4d). However, when the amount of glycerol was further increased to 50 mL, the catalytic activity decreased significantly (139 h⁻¹). From the TG and EPR analysis, it can be seen that with the increase of glycerol content (10–40 mL), the C doping amount gradually increased (21.4%–28.9%, Fig. S21), and the signal of oxygen defects became stronger and stronger (Fig. 4c), indicating that with the increase of C doping amount, more and more oxygen defects in C-TiO₂. When glycerol was further increased to 50 mL, the C doping amount is further increased (41.2%), but the oxygen defect amount decreases sharply, because too many C atoms will occupy most of the oxygen atoms, and TiO₂ will be covered by the C layer, resulting in a decrease in catalytic performance. Previous theoretical works also showed that the amount of oxygen defect in TiO₂ can be adjusted by carbon doping [70]. Notably, the different oxygen defect amounts of C-TiO₂ obtained here are relative change amount. The amount of oxygen defects cannot be accurately quantified because the values obtained by EPR characterization are relative quantities. It is well known that accurately quantifying defects is very difficult at present [71]. In this regard, we need to find suitable experimental methods and characterization techniques combined with theoretical calculations to quantify the defect amount of catalyst in future work.

We further analyzed the effect of oxygen defects on metal ion adsorption, metal dispersion and size as well as electronic structure using UV-Vis, TEM, and XPS techniques. From the UV-Vis and TEM analysis, it can be seen that with the increase the amount of oxygen defect in C-TiO₂, the absorption ability to metal Ni ions increases

(Fig. S22), and the particle size of Ni NPs decreases (4.1–2.7 nm, Fig. S23). Moreover, from the XPS analysis (Fig. S24), it can be seen that with the increase the amount of oxygen defect in C-TiO₂, the binding energies of metal Ni decrease (853.2–852.8 eV), indicating that the electron density of metal Ni increases. As a result, among the investigated catalysts, the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂-40 has the highest defect amount, the smallest metal particle size, the highest metal electron density, showing the highest catalytic performance. The more oxygen defects, the better the catalytic activity. In view of excellent catalytic activity of defect-rich Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ in the dehydrogenation of N₂H₄ aqueous solution, it is expected that this catalyst can also be used to efficiently removal N₂H₄ from sewage, which is conducive to promoting the sustainable development of the environment [72,73].

To further study the kinetic information of N₂H₄ dehydrogenation over Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂, the influences of N₂H₄ concentration, catalyst concentration, and reaction temperature were studied. As shown in Fig. S25a, the rate of H₂ generation does not increase with the increase of N₂H₄ concentration. Based on the plots of H₂ production rate and N₂H₄ concentration (both on a logarithmic scale), a straight line with a slope less than 0.1 is fitted, which means that the N₂H₄ dehydrogenation reaction is almost zero-order relative to the N₂H₄ concentration ranges from 0.2 to 0.8 M. As the concentration of Ni increases, the rate of H₂ generation increases accordingly (Fig. S25b). The curve graph (both logarithmic scale) based on H₂ production rate and catalyst concentration shows a straight line with a slope of 1.1, which means that N₂H₄ dehydrogenation is almost a first-order reaction relative to the catalyst concentration range of 0.02–0.05 M. As displayed in Fig. 5a, the activity of the catalyst increases with the increase of reaction temperature (303–343 K). The catalytic reactions for hydrogen generation from N₂H₄ over Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ were completed within 21.1, 10, 4.5, 2.8, and 1.31 min at 303, 313, 323, 333, and 343 K, respectively, corresponding to TOF values of 57, 120, 266, 426, and 910 h⁻¹ (Fig. 5b). According to the Arrhenius equation, the activation energy (E_a) of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ is calculated to be 52.6 kJ·mol⁻¹, which is lower than the majority of reported values for those catalysts in this reaction (Table S3). Additionally, the activation energies of Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs supported on C-TiO₂ prepared with 10, 20, 30, and 50 mL glycerol were also studied and calculated to be 58.6, 56.1, 53.4, and 60.9 kJ·mol⁻¹ (Figs. 5c and S26), respectively, which is slightly higher than that of Ni-Cr(OH)₃ NPs supported on C-TiO₂ prepared with 40 mL glycerol. The activation energies of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ are consistent with their catalytic activities and confirmed that the more oxygen defects in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂, the higher the catalyst activity and the lower reaction activation energy.

The stability of catalysts is also an important parameter in evaluating their sustainability and practicality in applications. In this study, after completing the previous run at 323 K, the durability of the catalysts was tested by adding the same amount of N₂H₄ to the reactor. The stability of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂-x is related to the amount of glycerol (x = 10–50 mL) (Fig. 5d). Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ was prepared with 40 mL glycerol showed the highest durability, with which retains ~59% of its initial catalytic activity (156 h⁻¹) and 100% H₂ selectivity even at the 20th cycle, which is significantly better than those of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ prepared the 10 mL (32.3%), 20 mL (36.2%), 30 mL (50.4%), and 50 mL (26.1%) of glycerol (Fig. S27). Clearly, the amount of oxygen defects in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ significantly affects the stability of the catalyst. The results show that the more oxygen defects, the better the catalyst stability. After 20 cycles, TEM images display that the particle size of Ni slightly increases from 2.7 to 4.6 nm (Fig. S28), which is responsible for its slightly decreased of its catalytic activity. Therefore, the robust durability of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ will help reduce the cost and consumption of catalysts, thereby promoting the development of clean energy technologies in practical applications.

Recently, hydrazine borane (N₂H₄BH₃, 15.4 wt%) has high hydrogen content and good stability at ambient temperature, it is regarded as another promising chemical hydrogen storage material [10,14,62]. When a suitable catalyst is used, the hydrogen stored in N₂H₄BH₃ can be

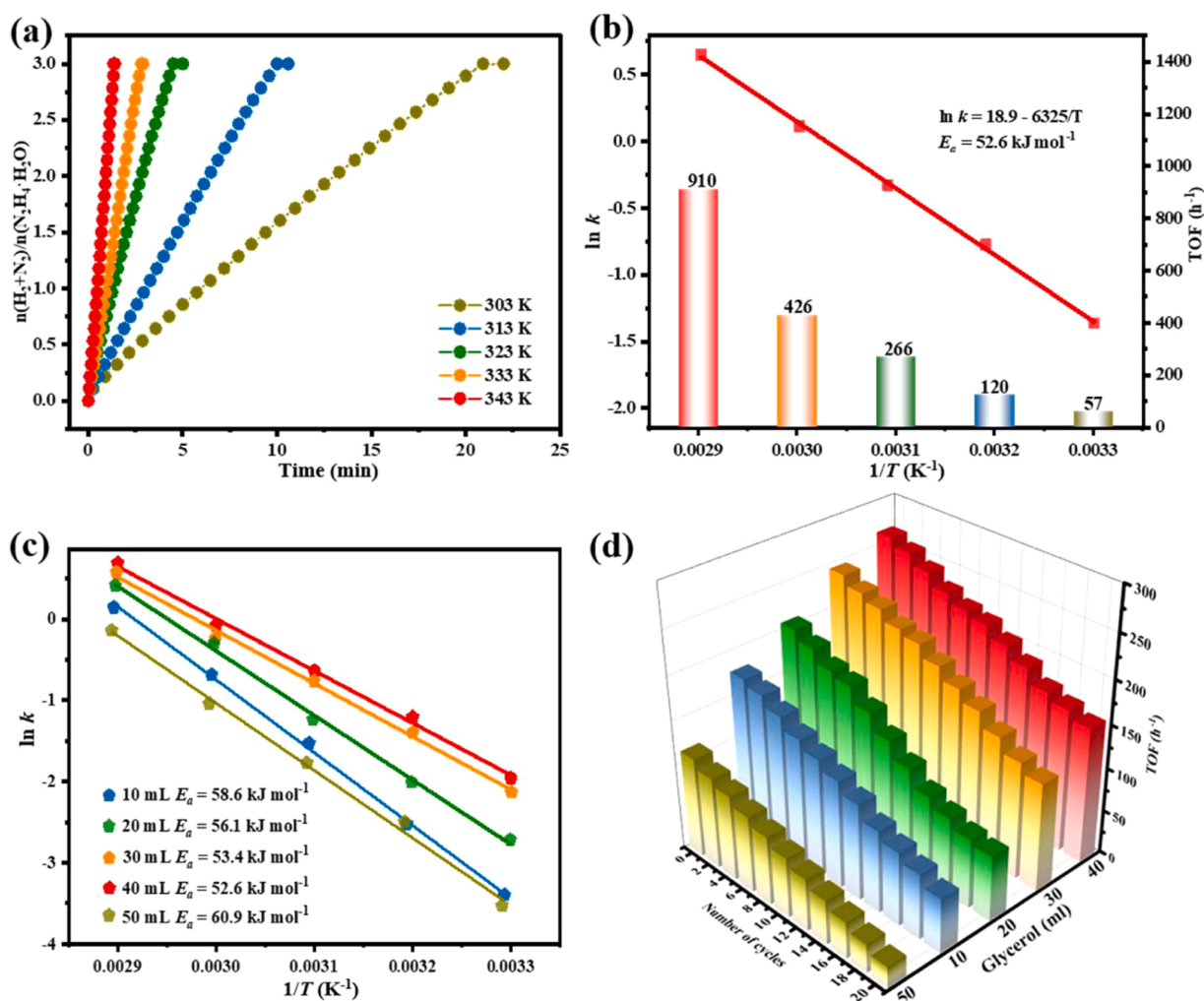


Fig. 5. (a) Hydrogen evolution time course plots of N₂H₄·H₂O (0.2 M, 5 mL) at temperatures range of 303–343 K, (b) the related Arrhenius plot ($\ln k$ vs. $1000/T$) and TOF values, (c) the corresponding Arrhenius plot ($\ln k$ vs. $1000/T$), and (d) durability activities over Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂-x ($x = 10$ –50 mL) prepared with different amounts of glycerol in the presence of NaOH (3.0 M) at 323 K ($n_{\text{Ni}}/n_{\text{N}_2\text{H}_4 \cdot \text{H}_2\text{O}} = 0.1$).

completely released ($\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\text{BH}_3(\text{s}) + 3 \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) \rightarrow \text{B}(\text{OH})_3(\text{l}) + \text{N}_2(\text{g}) + 5 \text{H}_2(\text{g})$) via the hydrolysis of the BH₃ group, and the decomposition of the N₂H₄ moiety. The synthesized Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ in this work was subsequently applied to the dehydrogenation of N₂H₄BH₃. It is worth noting that among all the prepared catalysts, Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ showed the highest activity (Fig. 6a), 6.0 equivalents (H₂ + N₂) were released per N₂H₄BH₃ within 2.6 min at 323 K. Clearly, the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ catalyst provided an exceptionally high TOF value of 577 h⁻¹ at 323 K, which is about 4.7-fold higher than Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂ (121 h⁻¹) and is among the highest level reported so far for noble-metal-free catalysts (Table S4). Similarly, C-TiO₂ is also inactive in N₂H₄BH₃ dehydrogenation (Fig. S29). In addition, as shown in Fig. 6b, the dehydrogenation trend is similar to that of N₂H₄, the catalytic efficiency of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂-x ($x = 10$ –50 mL) for dehydrogenation N₂H₄BH₃ also increases with the increase of oxygen defect amount. The above results further demonstrate that the rich oxygen defects in Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ can greatly enhance the catalytic efficiency.

Moreover, the effect of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ on the dehydrogenation rate of N₂H₄BH₃ was also investigated at different reaction temperatures. Similarly, as the reaction temperature increases, the catalytic hydrogen production rate also increases (Fig. 6c). Especially, the catalytic reaction of N₂H₄BH₃ for hydrogen production on Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ was completed within 0.57 min at 343 K, and the TOF value

reached up to 2631 h⁻¹. By fitting the Arrhenius plots, it is calculated that the activation energy for hydrolysis of the BH₃ group corresponding to part 1 (E_{a1}) is 26.4 kJ mol⁻¹, and the activation energy for decomposition of the N₂H₄ group corresponding to part 2 (E_{a2}) is 54.8 kJ mol⁻¹. The durability of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ for N₂H₄BH₃ dehydrogenation were also investigated. Even after 20 cycles, the hydrogen selectivity of the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ for N₂H₄BH₃ dehydrogenation remained 100% (Fig. 6d), and the catalytic activity did not decrease significantly, further demonstrating the excellent durability of Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ for hydrogen production reaction.

4. Conclusions

In summary, ultrafine and electron-rich Cr(OH)₃-modified Ni NPs (2.7 nm) supported on defect-rich C-doped mesoporous TiO₂ were successfully synthesized by impregnation reduction method. By simply changing the amount of carbon doping, the defect amount in C-TiO₂ can be easily adjusted. The characterization results show that abundant defects in C-TiO₂ can effectively disperse and reduce the size of metal NPs, increase the electron density of active metals, and thus improve the ability of catalyst to activate N-H bonds in N₂H₄·H₂O. Compared with Ni-Cr(OH)₃/TiO₂, the Ni-Cr(OH)₃/C-TiO₂ showed higher catalytic activity and 100% H₂ selectivity for hydrogen production from N₂H₄·H₂O and N₂H₄BH₃ under alkaline conditions, providing TOF values up to

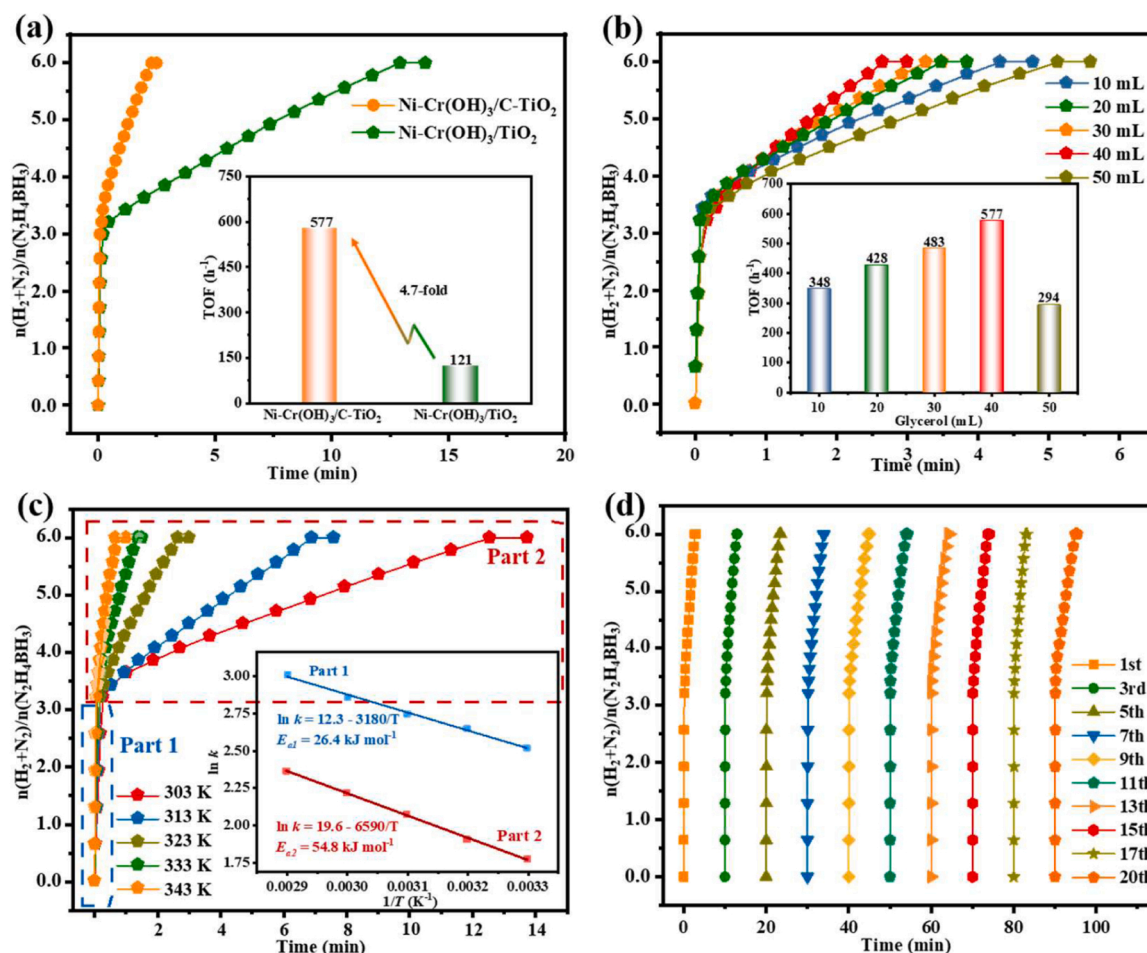


Fig. 6. Hydrogen evolution time course plots of $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\text{BH}_3$ aqueous solution (0.2 M, 5 mL) catalyzed by (a) $\text{Ni-Cr(OH)}_3/\text{C-TiO}_2$ and $\text{Ni-Cr(OH)}_3/\text{TiO}_2$, (b) $\text{Ni-Cr(OH)}_3/\text{C-TiO}_2$ -x ($x = 10\text{--}50 \text{ mL}$) prepared with different amounts of glycerol with NaOH (3.0 M) at 323 K ($n_{\text{Ni}}/n_{\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\text{BH}_3} = 0.2$). (c) Hydrogen evolution time course plots of $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\text{BH}_3$ aqueous solution at temperatures range of 303–343 K (inset: Arrhenius plot versus $1000/T$) and (d) Durability test over $\text{Ni-Cr(OH)}_3/\text{C-TiO}_2$ with NaOH at 323 K.

266 h^{-1} and 577 h^{-1} at 323 K, respectively, which is among the highest values ever reported for non-noble metal catalysts. Additionally, the $\text{Ni-Cr(OH)}_3/\text{C-TiO}_2$ catalyst also displayed robust durability without obvious degradation even after 20 cycles. The synthesized defect-rich $\text{Ni-Cr(OH)}_3/\text{C-TiO}_2$ catalyst has low cost, high activity, and high stability, which can promote the practical application of $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\cdot\text{H}_2\text{O}$ and $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4\text{BH}_3$ as hydrogen sources, as well as promote the sustainable development of clean energy and green chemicals. This study provides a novel and effective strategy for catalyst defect construction, and also opens up new avenues for the synthesis of defect-rich and efficient catalysts in other catalytic fields such as electrocatalysis photocatalysis.

CRediT authorship contribution statement

Xiaolei Zhang: Conceptualization, Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – original draft. **Qilu Yao:** Investigation, Formal analysis, Writing – review & editing, Funding acquisition. **Haochong Wu:** Investigation. **Yuanlan Zhou:** Structure analysis. **Meihua Zhu:** Formal analysis. **Zhang-Hui Lu:** Conceptualization, Writing – review & editing, Validation, Supervision, Funding acquisition.

Declaration of Competing Interest

The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

Data availability

No data was used for the research described in the article.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

Supplementary data associated with this article can be found in the online version at [doi:10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123153](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.apcatb.2023.123153).

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